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## LABOR

### LABOR PROBLEMS IN NORTHERN, EASTERN REGIONS OF THE COUNTRY DISCUSSED

Moscow SOTSIALISTICHESKIY TRUD in Russian No 6, Jun 81 pp 28-32

[Article by L. Shirokova and L. Mosina, Scientific Research Institute of Labor: "The Regional Regulation of Wages and Strengthening the Labor Force in the Northern and Eastern Regions of the Country"]

[Text] Acceleration of growth in the economic potential of eastern regions, the accomplishment of major work to develop their natural resources and the fuel and energy and raw materials bases of Siberia and the Far East, and the concentration there of construction of energy-intensive production facilities are all envisaged in the "Main Directions in the Economic and Social Development of the USSR 1981-1985 and for the Period through 1990." During the 11th Five-Year Plan intensive use will be made of the natural resources in the north of the West Siberian Lowland and the Kansk-Achinsk and South Yakutiya coal basins, and the construction of the Baykal-Amur Main Railroad Link will be continued along with the opening up of the regions located along the route of this railroad.

Naturally, under conditions of the development of natural resources in Siberia and the Far East, the recruitment and strengthening of the labor force and the further improvement of living conditions in these regions deserve special attention. Within the system of measures implemented in this direction in accordance with the decisions of the 23d, 24th and 25th CPSU congresses, a major role has been played by the regional regulation of wages. In contrast to other elements in wages that serve to provide incentive for workers to improve their qualifications, increase output, improve labor productivity and so forth, regional regulation insures equal conditions for the reproduction of the labor force by regions of the country together with incentive for the territorial redistribution of labor resources.

Starting in 1968, regional coefficients were introduced in stages for the wages of workers and employees in the European North, Far East, and West and East Siberia, and also for individual sectors, enterprises and organizations located in the Urals, Kazakhstan and the Central Asian republics. At the same time, the privileges for workers in the regions of the Far North and areas with the same status were extended. In 1972 wage increments were introduced for continuous work seniority along with other privileges for those working in the European North. In addition, in 1970 state wholesale prices were reduced for the most important food products so that they were in line with prices in the second zone in the Far East and Chitinskaya Oblast and in line with prices in the first zone of Kemerovskaya Oblast.

The instructions of the 25th CPSU Congress on the extension of privileges in the wages of workers employed in regions with severe natural and climatic conditions have been consistently implemented. At the same time, the preferential growth of the average wage in northern and eastern regions has been insured. During the period 1965-1978, compared with the average for the RSFSR, growth rates in the average wage were higher. As a result, by 1978 the territorial differential in wages in these regions had increased compared with 1968.

As well as increasing wages and population incomes, the party decisions provided for the strengthening of the labor force in the northern and eastern regions of the country by increasing the construction rates for housing and cultural-and-personal services establishments. Thus, during the 9th Five-Year Plan, state and cooperative enterprises and organizations, the kolkhozes and the population commissioned housing (thousands of square meters of useful area) in the RSFSR at an average level 6.9 percent above that in the 8th Five-Year Plan. In the West Siberian region the level of housing construction was 10.9 percent higher and in the Far East 21.7 percent higher. \* The gap in providing housing for the populations of the northern and eastern regions of the country has been closed compared with the old housing in the center. Nevertheless, in many krais and oblasts the per capita provision of housing still remains below the level for the republic.

Health care has been greatly improved in recent years. New hospitals equipped with up-to-date equipment have been built and the numbers of physicians and middle-level medical personnel have grown. Today, in terms of the number of hospital beds available per 10,000 of the population the inhabitants of the eastern and northern regions find themselves in an advantageous position. However, insufficient attention is given to the complexity of organizing health care caused by the low population density and the great distances between populated points and the major cities.

In the eastern and northern regions opportunities have grown for acquiring higher and secondary specialized education, and new training institutions have been opened in virtually every oblast, kray and autonomous republic. Over the past 20 years the number of higher and secondary specialized schools in the eastern regions has increased by a factor of 1.3-1.4, while the numbers of students studying in them has about trebled, which is considerably higher than for the RSFSR as a whole. Much attention has been given to the construction of schools and kindergartens. Average indicators for the number of preschool establishments available per 1,000 of the population are higher in the European North, East Siberia and the Far East than for the RSFSR and the Central Region. Taking into account the number of children of preschool age, in West and East Siberia the actual provision of preschool establishments is nevertheless lower than in the

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\* Here and throughout the article the sources cited are: Narodnoye khozyaystvo RSFSR v 1959 [The RSFSR National Economy in 1959], Moscow; Statezhgodnik TsSU RSFSR 1960 [Central Statistical Administration Statistical Year Book for the RSFSR, 1960], Moscow; Narodnoye khozyaystvo RSFSR v 1979 [RSFSR National Economy 1979], Moscow; and Statezhgodnik TsSU RSFSR 1980 [Central Statistical Administration Statistical Year Book for the RSFSR, 1980]

Central Region. Accordingly, the proportion of women who are not engaged in social production is higher there, even though it is precisely the northern and eastern regions that are experiencing the worst labor shortages.

We would like to note that the number of theaters, clubs, museums and libraries has been increased. Television has been further developed. Millions of viewers in the northern and eastern regions watch broadcasts beamed via the "Orbita" space communications system.

The steps taken to improve the living standards of the population in the northern and eastern regions have to some extent reinforced people's material interest in working in these regions, and this can be seen in the substantial rate of population growth. During the period between the All-Union Census of 1959 and the one in 1979, while average population growth for the entire RSFSR was 17 percent, the figure for the eastern regions was 24.3 percent. Population growth rates have been greater in those regions, krais and oblasts where natural resources have been developed intensively and processing sectors of industry developed on that base. During the past 20 years the population of Magadanskaya Oblast has virtually doubled; in Murmanskaya, Kamchatskaya and Tyumenskaya oblasts it has increased by a factor of 1.7, in the Komi ASSR and Primorskiy and Khabarovskiy krais by a factor of 1.4, and in Irkutskaya Oblast by a factor of 1.3, and so forth. \* Despite the increase in natural population growth resulting from the large proportion of younger people, growth has occurred largely through migration.

In the long term, the rapid development rates for the extracting and processing sectors of industry will necessitate the recruitment of additional labor resources to these regions. In this connection, the problem of improving the permanent settlement of the labor force and reducing turnover acquires exceptional importance. A major role in solving this problem is given over to the rational regulation of wages, since the application of regional coefficients creates favorable preconditions for the territorial redistribution of the labor force.

A comprehensive approach is essential when addressing questions of raising the living standard of the population in northern and eastern regions. However, insofar as at the present time and in the far long term wages will remain the main source of income for workers and employees (wages account for about 3/4 of total incomes), their effect on the recruitment and strengthening of the labor force should not be underestimated.

It is accepted that the regional regulation of wages is aimed at solving two interconnected problems: first, the creation of the same conditions for reproduction of the labor force in the different regions of the country, and second the recruitment and strengthening of the labor force in regions with

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\* Naseleniye SSSR: po dannym Vsesoyuznoy perepisi naseleniya 1979 [The Population of the USSR: figures from the All-Union Census, 1979], Moscow Politizdat 1980, pp 4-11; Naseleniye SSSR, 1973. Statsbornik [The Population of the USSR. Statistical Handbook], Moscow Statistika Publishing House 1975, pp 14-19



severe natural and climatic conditions. The former is being solved mainly with the aid of the regional coefficients, while the latter assumes the utilization both of regional coefficients and wage increments for continuous work seniority in the regions of the Far North and areas in the European North given the same status.

The primary purpose of the coefficients is to compensate for the higher expenditures incurred by the populations of the northern and eastern regions in connection with the price differences and the rates for paid services and the differences resulting from the natural and climatic conditions, that is, the differences in wages insure that real incomes for workers and employees are the same in the different regions of the country.

The northern increments serve as a means not of equalizing but of raising real wages. They create certain advantages in the pay of workers in regions with severe natural and climatic conditions and provide incentive in the recruitment and strengthening of the labor force. In contrast to the regional coefficients, which insure an increase in wages from the very first day of work at an enterprise or organization, the northern increments are paid to those who have the required work seniority, and they are increased up to a certain limit as the period of continuous seniority grows. They offer incentive for remaining for long periods at the same enterprise or organization and they promote the formation of stable production collectives.

In regions with severe natural and climatic conditions a system of bonuses and compensation has been introduced to supplement the regional regulation of wages: extra vacation of 12 or 18 days, free round-trip travel once every three years to the vacation location, privilege seniority for work that affords the right to receive an old-age or invalid pension, housing privileges and so forth.

The effectiveness of the northern increments and other privileges can be judged from a number of factors. When the wages supplements for uninterrupted seniority and other privileges were introduced in the European North, the stream of letters and applications expressing a desire to work in these regions (or cities) arriving at the job-placement offices swelled. For example, in 1976 the job-placement office in Arkhangel'skaya Oblast received four times the number of requests from the inhabitants of other areas than it did in 1972.

The northern increments have improved the provision of labor forces for enterprises and organizations, reduced labor turnover, strengthened labor discipline and reduced losses of working time, including the amount of administration-sanctioned absenteeism.

Two typical and similar kinds of regional wages regulations are now distinguished in East Siberia and the Far East: in the one, only the regional coefficients operate; in the other the regional coefficients operate together with the northern increments and a number of privileges. The division of the territory of these regions along a border with the regions of the Far North and areas given the same status has negative as well as positive aspects. South of this border, enterprises and organizations experience greater difficulty in maintaining a labor force because of the increased migration of the population and labor turnover. Most of the

enterprises of the manufacturing industry are concentrated in the southern regions, along with the production of agricultural products, and it is these that form a stable base for the development of the natural resources in the North.

The introduction of increments for uninterrupted work seniority at enterprises, organizations and establishments in the southern zone of East Siberia and the Far East envisaged in the "Main Directions in the Economic and Social Development of the USSR 1981-1985 and for the Period through 1990" is very timely and will promote improved efficiency in social production, as well as strengthening the labor force. Moreover, it will make it possible to eliminate the sharp differences in the wages of those working in the Far North and areas given the same status, and the other eastern regions.

During the 11th Five-Year Plan provision has been made to introduce regional coefficients for the wages of workers and employees in the Urals and certain regions of Kazakhstan for whom they have not yet been established, and also to continue to improve the regional regulation of wages.

At the present time, within the regional regulation of wages "some stratification has developed, and coefficients have been introduced piecemeal to create advantages for individual sectors or enterprises."\* It is a matter chiefly of eliminating the prevailing shortcomings and switching from a territorial-branch system to the interregional regulation of wages.

The calculations show that the coefficients now in force (the Central Region of the RSFSR has been adopted as the base for comparison) mainly correspond to differences in the cost of living.

Today in a number of oblasts (or krais) several regional coefficients are in force. This is because their territories are located in different natural and climatic zones. In order to strengthen the socioeconomic bases for setting up systems for the interregional and intraregional regulation of wages it is essential to carry out a comprehensive bioclimatologic and economic zoning of the country by dividing up major regions of internal zones with special natural and climatic conditions that exert a negative effect on people's activities. It is particularly important to do this in the eastern regions where it is intended to set up new industrial centers.

With the exacerbation of the labor resources problem, in a number of regions of the country the ministries and administrations constantly pass the question to the USSR State Committee for Labor and Social Problems, seeking the introduction or raising of regional coefficients for individual enterprises or organizations that are experiencing a labor shortage or cannot fulfill their plans. Undoubtedly increasing wages will to a certain extent improve labor force recruitment at an enterprise or construction site but it does not remove the causes of the unfavorable

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\* B.M. Sukharevskiy. Upravleniye zarabotnoy platoy [Wages Management] in the book Sistema upravleniya trudom v razvitoe sotsialisticheskoy obshchestve [The Labor Management System in a Developed Socialist Society], Moscow Ekonomika Publishing House 1980, p 239.



situation in meeting planned targets. Studies conducted by the Scientific Research Institute for Labor have shown that the causes of this kind of situation are to be found primarily in major shortcomings in the organization of labor and supplies of raw materials and materials, the untimely commissioning of production capacities and maintenance of technologic equipment and so forth.

At the enterprises studied, wages were not the main motive for workers quitting their jobs at their own request. The proportion of those quitting because of dissatisfaction with their wages is even falling, since satisfying other requirements is now being moved to the forefront.

Thus, in 1973, at the Selengi Cellulose and Cardboard Combine 11.6 percent of workers quit because of dissatisfaction with their wages, and 51.8 percent because of inadequate provisions for housing, while in 1976 (after the regional coefficient had been raised) the figures were 1.6 and 67.5 percent respectively; at the Pervomayskiy Ship-Repair Yard (Vladivostok city) in 1976 the corresponding figures were 12.1 and 75.2 percent, and in 1977 they stood at 11.7 and 78.2 percent.

Since the problem of recruiting and strengthening the labor force is complex, it requires, as well as increases in wages, the resolution of other matters connected with raising the standard of living and improving the availability of housing, preschool establishments for children and development of the service spheres. Insufficient attention to these problems weakens the effect of regional regulation on the recruitment and strengthening of the labor force, and also the development of labor activity among workers.

At 26th CPSU Congress the question was raised of smoothing out the social differences at the territorial level, that is, of eliminating the differences in the population's standard of living in the different regions of the country, which in most cases are the reason for the labor shortages at enterprises and organizations in a number of places, primarily the new construction sites in the northern and eastern regions of the country.

Here it is apropos to note that in the northern and eastern regions there are cities where the labor problem has been practically solved. Norilsk, which came into being in 1935 in connection with the construction of a mining and metallurgical combine, is one example of this. Right from the start, everything possible was done here to strengthen the labor force and create a stable collective capable of solving the tasks set for the combine. In terms of the development of the social infrastructure Norilsk is as good as modern cities and in some ways even superior. In 1978 the city had 60 preschool establishments constructed according to improved designs (each kindergarten catering for 300 children has a swimming pool), 38 schools, several vocational and technical schools, 6 conservatories of music and an industrial institute, along with the "Arktika" sports stadium with artificial ice and a swimming pool. The library stocks exceed 25 million books.\* Sales of vegetables and fruit in the stores increase with each passing year.

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\* Norilskiy meridian [The Norilsk Meridian], Moscow Pravda Publishing House 1978 pp 37-40

Scientists consider that man's chief enemy in the North is not the cold but the polar night. And so the schools and kindergartens have been equipped with lighting that radiates ultraviolet rays closely approximating those in sunlight. Rooms equipped with this kind of lighting have been set up at the ore workings and mines and at almost all plants.

An ambitious program to improve general and leisure conditions for the workers was implemented during the 10th Five-Year Plan. Speaking at the all-union conference "The Development of Production Forces in Siberia" in June 1980, the director of the Norilsk Mining and Metallurgical Combine B.I. Kolesnikov noted that during the 10th Five-Year Plan 930,000 square meters of housing, 10 schools and vocational and technical schools with a total of 11,000 places, two 400-bed hospitals, two polyclinics and six sports facilities had been constructed.\* Substantial capital investments to develop nonproduction spheres are planned for the 11th Five-Year Plan.

The good social and personal conditions created in Norilsk despite the severe natural and climatic conditions exert an attractive force on the inhabitants of other cities and rayons. The people of Norilsk do not willingly leave their city and many who have left have returned. And so, the northern privileges in combination with a developed social infrastructure make it possible to solve the questions of recruiting and strengthening the labor force.

In recent years demands have been heard to strengthen the territorial differentiation in wages in connection with the extensive development of the natural resources of Siberia, the Far East and the European North by setting up new territorial-production complexes in these regions. This question is posed primarily in order to increase material interest in order to recruit and strengthen the labor forces at enterprises and construction sites in remote regions and in regions where new economic development is taking place.

In practice, regional coefficients at almost all new construction sites in the northern and eastern regions, and also in Kazakhstan, have been raised (by 0.1 to 0.4 points). Gradually, in line with the switch to a higher stage of industrial development of the territory, the creation of a stable work collective and expansion of the consumer services sphere, that is, with the elimination of the factors prevailing in the initial period in the development of a locality that served as the cause for establishing regional coefficients, the grounds for having the regional coefficients will disappear. In practical terms, however, the raised coefficients are not being abolished but will operate for a long period.

In our opinion, for construction workers building and maintaining buildings in regions of new industrial development it is advisable to introduce special increments to wages to compensate for the lack of population in a locality; this should promote the consolidation of the population arriving in a new location. Traveling to a new place of work and residence involves a family in considerable

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\* EKONOMIKA I ORGANIZATSIYA PROMYSHLENNOGO PROIZVODSTVA No 12, 1980, p 49

one-time expenses; so does the sociopsychological upheaval associated with adapting to the natural and climatic conditions and setting up a new life in a settlement or city. In order to make the increment more effective it should be higher during the initial period in the development of a locality, and later, as the social infrastructure and the consumer services sphere in this locality are developed to the standard level or to the level prevailing in the oblast (or kray), the size of the increment should, in our opinion, be reduced, and the payment of the additions cut off completely at the end of a specified period. These additions should be of a clearly expressed and temporary nature and should be aimed at creating in ministries and administrations engaged in construction work incentives for accelerating the resolution of social and personal problems in any given populated point. At the same time, the introduction of these increments should act as added incentive for workers to transfer to new construction when the system of increments is no longer operating in a given locality (or construction site). The introduction of these additions will promote the recruitment of a qualified labor force to new construction sites.

In conclusion it should be noted that the effectiveness of the system of regional regulation of wages depends largely on a unified approach by ministries and administrations to the organization of wages and the correct formation of wages funds at enterprises and organizations located in the different regions of the country. Studies conducted by the Scientific Research Institute for Labor and other organizations have indicated that when planning wages funds for enterprises and organizations in the northern and eastern regions, ministries and administrations make stricter demands for the determination of average percentage of norm fulfillment, the formation of the material incentive fund and so forth.

Ministries and administrations must insure a unified approach to the planning of wages funds and the material incentive fund, and reinforce their control over the organization of wages. If planning for the wages fund is imperfect or its distribution between labor collectives unscrupulous, it is virtually impossible to set up an effective system for organizing wages within the enterprises and associations, and this inevitably affects the state of affairs in the national economy.

Questions of territorial planning for wages funds will become more urgent during the 11th Five-Year Plan during the transfer from the planning of absolute indicators for the wages fund in accordance with the level achieved in normative planning. When working out standard norms for wages per unit of output, account must be taken of the territorial features in the organization of wages at enterprises and organizations in the northern and eastern regions, and most of all of the increased payments for the northern increments.

During the 11th and 12th five-year plans the intensive development of the natural resources of the European North, Siberia and the Far East will be continued, and this will require the recruitment to these regions of an additional labor force, particularly in regions of new economic development. Therefore, improvements in the regional regulation of wages in combination with improved provision of housing, and development of the consumer social and cultural services will promote the settlement of migrants, create stable production collectives, and accelerate the development of production forces in these regions of the country.

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## LABOR

### PAY BY INDIVIDUAL CONTRIBUTION KEY TO IMPROVED FARM PRODUCTIVITY

Moscow PRAVDA in Russian 10 Jul 81 p 2

[Article by V. Vershinin, candidate of economic sciences: "The Farmer Entered a Contract"]

[Text] There is more talk about team contracts in the village today. A search for its more efficient forms is under way. One of these is the normless [beznaryadnyy] collective. The successes of the team led by V. Pervitskiy, the brigade led by A. Cherepova in Krasnodarskiy Kray, the detachment headed by V. Makhno in Nikolayevskaya Oblast and others are widely known.

It seems that the valuable experience should have been wisely disseminated. Even more so because it has been known for almost 20 years. But so far the number of such collectives is small.

There are many reasons for this. One of the main ones, I think, is in the wage system itself. During almost the entire year and until final production is obtained workers are given advance payments monthly. But the amount is determined on the basis of the time rate principle. Basically the time worked off is calculated while individual differences between members of the collective and contribution by each to common success very often remains out of sight.

Unquestionably such a form of advance payments requires selection of identical workers as regards work quality and attitude toward work. This is not easily achieved, especially in large collectives. But creation of small subdivisions very often interferes in adjusting production processes based on the principle of the flow system and regularity. In short it cannot be done today without concentrating people and equipment. For example, a brigade of 15-25 machine operators is needed to service crop rotation in the field on an area of 2000-3000 hectares. Staffing it with people of identical skill and attitude toward work is not successful as a rule. More often than not a farm just does not have proper selection due to shortage of machine operators.

The moral part of the matter is also of no lesser importance. The orientation toward "selected ones" itself is utterly wrong. Frequently there are worthy people among those who have been "rejected" by a brigade or a team leader. They simply are incapable of competing against comrades either in skill--especially if they are new men--or due to physical means, health, age.

On the other hand the use of equal time rate advance payments for unequal attitude toward work is fraught with wage leveling. As we know, its consequences are deteriorating production indexes and a psychological microclimate.

Of course a search is under way for a way out by scientists and practical persons. In the majority of brigades in Sarayevskiy Rayon in Ryazanskaya Oblast, for example, the collective earnings are distributed with the consideration of the work time utilization ratio, fulfillment of norms and adherence to labor discipline. But they are calculated according to such complex formulas that many machine operators do not understand them. The amount of advance payment depends on the brand of a tractor and type of work. In Domanevskiy Rayon in Nikolayevskaya Oblast and in Stanovlyanskiy Rayon in Lipetskaya Oblast it is being paid proportionately by norm-shifts. In other places it is paid in accordance with standard categories and norm-hours. In all instances output and the amount of work done is again used as a basis.

Some may object: supplementary wage is provided for excellent fulfillment of agricultural work. Yes, but its relative share in overall earnings is not great. Thus it amounted to only 1.5 percent in 1979 among plant growers in sovkhoses of the RSFSR Ministry of Agriculture.

Many of the systems used to pay for work so far have poorly stimulated raising its quality. This is very costly to the sector. As a rule it is difficult to eliminate waste in plant growing completely. It is impossible to sow a second time without causing detriment to the harvest, to return life to seedlings destroyed during poor intercultivation and return fodder quality to spoiled silage and hay.

Agronomists of many farms, who are swamped with organizational matters, have stopped checking how the fields are plowed, sown and harvested. Extra pay for quality is often transformed into a mechanical addition to basic pay. The situation that has developed has also been promoted by the fact that experienced workers as well as scientists have for a long time believed it impossible to conduct operational control over the work quality.

The experience of farms in the Kuban area, and particularly of the Kirov kolkhoz in Kanevskiy Rayon, on which PRAVDA reported at one time, convinces us of the error of such views. So-called standards of quality have been established here. All specialists and tallymen were trained in control methods. The essence of the innovation is that wages of machine operators are increased 25 percent for excellent work and reduced by the same amount for satisfactory work. Work that is performed well is paid at the wage rate. By approaching the situation in such a manner the farm has considerably improved its production indexes.

For mass assimilation of operational control the Ministry of Agriculture should, it appears, generalize practical experiences and recommendations of scientific institutions soonest. It would be well to establish short-term courses to train agronomists, best farmers and specialists for such control. Their task must be to familiarize machine operators with the new requirements and methods for keeping records of work quantity and quality. With this aim in mind mass production of corresponding measuring instruments should also be organized.

This is one part of the problem. The other one is of no lesser importance. Regardless of how a machine operator may try, for example during sowing, if the field is poorly plowed then good embedding of seeds and good sprouts cannot be ensured. In other words work in agriculture must also be stimulated by collective forms of incentive. They must constantly improve with consideration of the real contribution made by everyone.

A new standard provision on wages for workers of agricultural enterprises has been confirmed this year. It gives the right of establishing on farms the amount of advance payments according to average grade and the amount and quality of work completed. But again the question arises about systematic accounting of the quantity and quality of work done by every machine operator.

The experience of the Timiryazev and "Put k kommunizmu" sovkhozes in Bashmakovskiy Rayon in Penzenskaya Oblast is of interest. As with the normless wages, estimates by the job are applied. The final settlement with a brigade is based on it. But until final production is received wages are credited for the volume fulfilled. The money due to members of the brigade for the month goes into the collective fund. It is distributed among them based on work participation ratio (WPR). It is calculated simply: wages of machines operators for the volume of completed work are multiplied by the valuation of its quality. With the aid of scientists a standard has been developed. Based on it an agronomist estimates the quality of work daily. If a machine operator disagrees the final decision is made by the brigade. In this manner not only the quantity but also the quality of work of every worker is considered.

What has been gained by the wage system based on WPR may be judged by the following facts. Collectives of the "Put k kommunizmu" and Timiryazev sovkhozes, unlike their neighbors, have exceeded their 5-year plan for the sale of grain to the state. While the value of gross crop production calculating on 100 hectares of agricultural land resources remained the same in the rayon during the 5-year period, the increase totaled 20 and 57 percent respectively at these farms. The production cost of grain crops and sugar beets has been lower compared with others and losses were less.

The basic wage, which is directly dependable not only on quantity but also on the quality of completed work, raises mutual demands and control. Improved accounting eliminates the problem of forming a collective only of best workers.

But most important is that a possibility has appeared to eliminate subjectivism in wages. It is especially important now because the councils of production brigades have been granted the right, within established limits for bonuses and wages, to determine the size of rewards to each member of the brigade based on his contribution to common success.

Due to natural and other reasons bonuses and supplementary payments are hardly granted each year in agriculture. Sometimes basic wage is the only motivation. Apparently the brigades and their councils should be given the right to distribute not only supplementary payments and bonuses but also wages as a whole with consideration of the work quality.



It is also important to consider other factors. We believe that to a decisive degree the success of the matter is determined by the cost accounting independence of brigades and teams. But such independence is not ensured in the majority of kolkhozes and sovkhoses. The equipment and fertilizers are allocated either not fully or late. Without consent of a brigade or a team new members are assigned to the collective, machine operators are diverted to other sectors and the wage fund is expended arbitrarily.

The necessity is ripe to follow the example of other sectors and to develop and introduce a standard contract agreement in agriculture, which will have legal force. It will help in precisely defining mutual relations of the sides and their rights, duties and responsibilities.

The party and government resolution on improving planning and economic stimulation of production and procurement of agricultural products should actively promote further improvement of economic relations in the rural areas. Formerly specialists and supervisors of farms have not always determined what, when and how much to plant, what cattle stock to have and how to organize labor. They would form cost accounting contractual collectives and would allot land to them but sometime later an order is issued from above to change the structure of sowing and introduce new subdivisions. The land loses its continuous master and the yield per hectare drops.

Cost accounting independence of internal economic subdivisions is unthinkable without similar independence of kolkhozes and sovkhoses themselves. It is also expedient to build mutual relations of agricultural enterprises with the state on a contractual basis. A kolkhoz or a sovkhos pledges to produce and supply a definite quantity of grain, meat and milk within established periods at guaranteed prices while the state will provide the necessary material and technical means for this purpose and pay for the production. Each side must bear penalties for failure to fulfill mutual pledges.

Of course improvement of collective forms of labor organization and wages and introduction of cost accounting based on contractual agreements is not a simple matter. It requires time and a deep, thorough analysis of accumulated experiences. But work must be conducted in this direction more actively. It will help in strengthening the feeling of being a master and ardent interest in the common success among every farmer.

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## LABOR

### LABOR CONSERVATION CONCEPT CLARIFIED, ADVANTAGES LISTED

Moscow ZHURNALIST in Russian No 5, May 81 pp 32-34

[Article by Vladimir Nemchenko, doctor of economic sciences and professor at the USSR Academy of the National Economy: "If We Work Economically"]

[Text] The economic policy of the party, as ratified by the 26th CPSU Congress, envisages a profound internal connection between the steady and constant development of the national economy and the more efficient use of the nation's production potential and maximum conservation of all types of resources, especially manpower.

From what I have read I can see that the implementation of this requirement--the conservation of labor resources--is something of a new and unfamiliar task for many press personnel and therefore requires some kind of new approach. The struggle to conserve energy, crude resources and other materials and to treat equipment with care is a traditional newspaper topic, and it appears that it is simpler for the journalist to deal with what we have seen in the production sphere and to estimate the actual value of a specific innovation. Material resource conservation is calculated and expressed in specific numerical indicators: so much energy was conserved, this much fuel and that much metal.

But how can the savings in labor potential be measured? How can it be expressed? And in general, how can we put both ends together without contradicting ourselves? On the one hand we advise people to "spare no effort," but on the other we ask them to conserve labor expenditures. It seems as though we are calling for limited effort.

Let us try to determine the causes of the intensification of this problem, which, for the sake of brevity, we will call "labor conservation."

Above all, the problem has been intensified and made particularly acute by the obvious shortage of labor resources which the national economy has encountered for the first time in our nation's entire history. In his speech at the 26th party congress, L. I. Brezhnev listed the declining growth rate of labor resources as one of the factors which would complicate economic development in the 1980's.

By the beginning of the 1970's the sources of additional manpower for the national economy were essentially depleted. The possibility of making agricultural workers available for work in other sectors was severely reduced. The redistribution of

manpower from agriculture to other branches is still going on, but on a smaller scale and sometimes, regrettably, to the detriment of the rural economy's development.

In connection with this, the freedom to maneuver labor resources in the national economy was considerably reduced. This is why the limited number of labor resources was already apparent in the 1970's, even though this was the decade of the most significant growth of the working-age population in the entire postwar period. In some locations there was even a labor shortage. The situation will be even more difficult in the coming decade, when the relatively small generation of the 1960's will reach working age.

This objectively determined state of affairs is the reason for a number of the demands set forth in the "Basic Guidelines for the Economic and Social Development of the USSR During 1981-1985 and During the Period up to 1990."

Nonetheless, I believe that it could be wrong to draw a direct connection between the principles of manpower conservation and factors of immediate import. Articles of material and spiritual value, the documents of the 26th congress state, are created by the labor of workers, kolkhoz members and the intelligentsia. Only labor can augment national wealth. Society can only distribute that which has been produced. For this reason, as labor results climb higher, the might of our socialist motherland grows stronger, personal and societal needs are satisfied more fully and the standard of living of the Soviet people rises.

This policy statement, I believe, conveys a deeper meaning of the term "conservation." Limitation and foresight in spending represent just one of its aspects. Another aspect is also indicated and is even, one could say, given priority: the highly productive, efficient and proficient use of labor and its intelligent organization. In this sense, the principle of labor conservation is freed of all temporary considerations. We begin to regard this conservation as one of the distinctive features of the mature socialist economy.

In terms of significance and urgency, I would say that our first task should be the discovery and utilization of the massive hidden labor reserves which now exist in the production sphere. I am referring to the quicker growth of labor productivity through technological progress, the better organization of production and labor and, finally, the fuller use of working time.

I may be wrong but it seems to me that journalists are not as active as they once were in the struggle to raise the level of mechanization in production and to eradicate manual labor. This is probably due to the mechanization slogans which are a bit too obvious and are universally recognized statements--for example, "Let us make machines responsible for manual labor." This apparently gives rise to the assumption that writing about this would be tantamount to breaking down an open door. Besides this, several important documents were adopted in recent years to set up a program of accelerated mechanization in various branches of the national economy.

And yet this is still an extremely pressing problem. According to my calculations, 43.5 percent of all workers in industry are still performing manual labor. The percentage of manual labor in other branches of the national economy is also still



high, particularly in trade and in non-production branches. In the grocery trade, in particular, the level of mechanization is negligible.

In industry the mechanization of auxiliary work and assembly and installation operations has been particularly slow. Auxiliary workers represent almost half of all workers in industry. But whereas manual labor is performed by one out of every three workers in basic production units, the ratio for auxiliary workers is two out of three. The technical level of auxiliary work is so low that the increased mechanization and technical equipping of basic operations cannot produce the necessary savings in labor expenditures.

The problem is compounded by the fact that the sphere of auxiliary work is of least interest to journalists. I cannot recall a single article which described the everyday labor operations of this category of workers with their specific problems or a single press report on an initiative in this sphere. Obviously, definite stereotypes affect the choice of production topics in the press and on television, and I feel that these should be resolutely revised. The following statistics support my point of view: 3.3 million industrial workers performed transport loading and warehousing operations manually, 2.2 million do the same with repair operations and 2.1 million perform manual assembly and installation work. I would like to ask the journalists who visit enterprises from time to time this question. I am certain that all of them have seen fitters at work. And what about repairmen? And what about warehousemen? Do the journalists' notebooks contain even brief references to their work or even interviews of just two or three phrases, which would allow us to hear the voice of such a large segment of the working class?

After all, the mechanization of auxiliary work, particularly freight handling operations, is highly effective. It guarantees an increase in labor productivity that far surpasses the increase resulting from the mechanization of other operations of equal cost. According to estimates, freight handling equipment costing approximately 10 billion rubles would be sufficient for the mechanization of labor in this sphere. This would make 8-9 million people available for work in other production areas. In other words, these measures alone would compensate for half of the reduction in natural labor resource growth in the 1980's.

Obviously, the intensive mechanization of freight handling operations would necessitate corresponding expansion in the production of material-handling equipment. But this problem is being solved: Expansion is envisaged in the decree of the CPSU Central Committee and USSR Council of Ministers of 22 November 1973. For this reason, it is important to keep an eye on the progress of the programs set forth in this decree.

Many newspaper articles have noted that the decree of the CPSU Central Committee and USSR Council of Ministers on the improvement of the economic mechanism included the indicator of labor mechanization among plan indicators. There is no question that this will establish favorable conditions for the eradication of manual labor in all branches of the national economy. But before these conditions can be utilized, a great deal remains to be accomplished. The special programs for the mechanization of manual labor, drawn up for enterprises, associations, main administrations and ministries, could be of great benefit. I can recommend to newsmen the interesting experience accumulated in drafting and carrying out these programs at enterprises in the Latvian SSR, Zaporozhskaya and Chelyabinskaya oblasts and some enterprises in nonferrous metallurgy.

The second major way of conserving labor consists in the better organization of labor and production. Numerous experiments have proved that only the improvement of time and space relationships between labor processes and their basic elements can produce a high production effect with the same or even lower expenditures of labor. According to some estimates, the better organization of labor and management at a relatively low cost could reduce the national economy's manpower requirements by approximately 10 million workers. This means that the combination of intensive mechanization and the better organization of labor and management could fully compensate for the reduction of natural labor resource growth.

An analysis of work schedules proves that the above statement is not an exaggeration.

A society's working time represents the existence of labor which creates national wealth. The inefficiently utilized segment of work time is equivalent to nonexistent labor and reduces national income. This is why party documents and L. I. Brezhnev's speeches have repeatedly emphasized that the fuller use of total work time is one of the most reliable means of labor productivity augmentation. Such shortcomings as losses of working time, idle time, erratic work schedules, poor labor and technological discipline and the high rate of personnel turnover at a number of enterprises are particularly intolerable.

The use of work time is, on the one hand, a condition for the organization of labor and, on the other, a result of this organization. The manner in which working time is utilized is a reliable indication of the quality of labor and production organization at a particular enterprise or in a particular branch.

Judging by statistics, recorded losses of work time have decreased in recent years. However, although the USSR Central Statistical Administration has improved its method of calculating losses of work time, far from all losses are recorded. Sample studies have demonstrated that actual intrashift losses are dozens of times greater than recorded losses. According to the data of one of the most thorough studies, total losses represent from 15 to 45 percent of work time. Even if we choose the conservative approach and take the minimum figure, the eradication of these losses would be equivalent to reducing the national economy's manpower requirement by 18-20 million workers.

What are the causes of losses of work time and, along with this, of the unacceptable waste of labor resources?

Here we can uncover a complex group of deep-seated economic causes: the lack of agreement between supply plans and production plans, the occasionally poor quality of new materials and equipment, the flaws in the price-setting mechanism.... It would be impossible to list them all. For now I would like to direct the reader's attention to the particular aspects of the struggle against losses of work time that are connected primarily with shortcomings in the organization of production directly at enterprises and requiring no sizable capital investments.

Sample studies have indicated that around half of all intrashift idle time is due to organizational errors (mainly, poorly scheduled material supply operations) and a third is due to equipment malfunctions. Shortcomings in material and technical supply operations are also the reason for a high percentage of day-long work stoppages (up to 70 percent at some enterprises). Production underloads due to supply errors are also the reason for many so-called administrative leaves.

Unfortunately, it does not seem possible to measure all of the losses connected with shortcomings in material supply operations and the resulting disruption of work rhythm. However, according to a group of managers of machine-building enterprises and associations who have attended classes at the USSR Academy of the National Economy, it is this disruption of work rhythm by the violation of supply schedules that is the main reason for losses of work time. This means that we must first reinforce discipline in the sphere of material and technical supply and, possibly, even impose more severe penalties for the violation of delivery schedules and conditions.

But this is not the only answer or the complete answer to the question raised by the present economic situation.

The mere repetition (no matter how justified!) of complaints to suppliers begins at some point to work against the idea that it would seem to uphold. If the actual reasons for erratic work schedules lie somewhere beyond the boundaries of the enterprise, little depends on administrators, not to mention those who carry out their orders, and their own guilt for the violation of production rhythm is reduced to such meager proportions that it is not even worth mentioning. But after all, this means that the production cycle at a given enterprise is incomplete, and these interruptions will be passed on to other enterprises--and there too, administrators will relieve themselves of responsibility by saying: "They are at fault, they let us down."

For this reason, the experience of enterprises where the work is uninterrupted seems more important than ever before. And there are such enterprises, and the means they use to establish their work rhythm are effective and extraordinary. For example, some enterprises are experimenting with the weekly payment of wages. Usually, of course, wages are paid twice a month; what is more, an advance payment is issued at first which does not depend on the labor achievements of the individual and collective, and it is only at the end of the month that accounts are settled in full. In itself, this method of paying wages would seem to be adapted to the unfortunate "curve" of monthly arrhythmia. In the first 10 days the collective is dormant, in the second it stretches its muscles, and in the third it works feverishly. But all plans are ultimately fulfilled, all accounts are closed and a bonus for overfulfillment can even be anticipated. With the weekly salary system, however, accounts are settled in full each 5 days: The amount of work performed determines the amount of money paid out, and if the week was part of the "dormant" period, not a kopeck is paid out.

This system has had an extraordinary effect. Workers have "pressured" foremen for a daily workload, and the foremen, in turn, have "leaned on" shop chiefs. Stoppages have been reduced perceptibly and rhythm has been established. And it is now known that the insidious and distant "they" are not to blame for all misfortunes. Many unutilized reserves for the improvement of the organization and, consequently, the conservation of labor still exist at the enterprise, and the mobilization of these reserves necessitates discarding the vicious circle of mutual irresponsibility, and in the best possible way--from the bottom up.

But this experiment was cut short for an unexpected and quite distressing reason. There were complaints from...the workers' wives. There was still a tradition of "bathing" wages, but these wages were now twice as great. I still think that this should not prejudice us against an interesting and quite effective method. Apparently, it would be useful to revive such experiments, making sure that their program includes the more productive use of leisure time and an effective struggle against drunkenness.



A careful analysis of losses of work time also reveals other important reserves of labor conservation outside the boundaries of enterprises. One-tenth of intrashift losses of work time can be attributed to tardiness and early departures from work, and far from all cases involve deliberate violations of labor discipline. One study established that workers at the Kontaktor Plant in Ul'yanovo left for lunch 15-20 minutes early because the cafeteria was so crowded. Over the year, losses of work time at this plant for just this reason totaled around 10,000 man-hours. At the Dzerzhinsk Chemical Machine-Building Plant in Gor'kovskaya Oblast, late trains were responsible for around 1,000 recorded cases of tardiness within 2 years. At the Voronezh Mining and Enriching Equipment Plant, 1,500 man-days were lost for the same reason within 4 months.

Around half of all day-long stoppages are connected with administrative leaves. They usually mean that the worker has to go to the housing administration, the polyclinic, the repair shop or the dry cleaners. What is to be done? According to the data of a special survey, more than two-thirds of all consumer service reception offices are manned by a single shift with unvarying work hours. One-fourth of them are closed on Saturdays, and four-fifths are closed on Sundays. Less than one-fourth open before 0900 hours, and less than half close after 1800 hours. In the Georgian SSR virtually all of them are open between 0900 and 1800 hours. The same is true of housing administrations: Only one out of every ten opens at 0800 on work days, and even less close after 1900 hours.

Allowing workers' leaves to visit service enterprises and organizations results in losses of working time totaling several hundred thousand man-hours.

Local government agencies have the right to order consumer service offices to change their work schedule to make it more convenient for the working public. But this right is rarely exercised. Public service personnel do not want to be at work when other members of their families are free, and everyone knows how critical personnel problems can be at times in the service sphere. But it seems quite important to not simply state distressing facts, but to energetically seek a solution. For example, the service work schedule could be improved considerably through the broader involvement of retired individuals in part-time work. Wherever it is possible and expedient, work should be conducted according to a flexible schedule, which will allow workers to choose their working and non-working hours more freely. Other important social benefits of flexible work schedules have already been pointed out in the press. Experience has shown, in particular, that this strengthens conscious discipline, and this means higher indicators of labor conservation.

I would also like to direct the attention of journalists to some specific problems in labor conservation, lying in the area where the production and service spheres overlap. What is the ideal distribution of manpower between the two spheres? In other words, should we, even in forecasts or strategic estimates, give the public service sphere the full responsibility of taking on the daily concerns and duties of citizens? Although this question is aimed at the distant future, it is quite significant today. Sometimes when we grow tired of daily concerns, we start to think about the wondrous public services of the future, when consumer service will literally anticipate all our needs and desires.... But will this ever be possible? And, what is more important, would this be as good as it looks in our dreams? Would it be good if we did nothing and were not able to do anything for ourselves and our families--except pay for services?

No, I am firmly convinced that even when consumer services reach their highest point of development, we would still need to do a great deal for ourselves. Society would not only designate certain people to perform all of these tasks--appliance and home repairs, sewing and mending, shoe repairs and so forth--but will also create the necessary conditions so that we can, if we wish, perform this work ourselves. It would help us to set up home workshops, help us to acquire materials, etc. It would be just the same as it is now in private farming and subsidiary plots, which, according to recent decisions, are to play a significant role in the implementation of the food program. It is precisely here that the principle of labor conservation should take on tangible features.

I think that many readers would be amazed at how much working time is lost when personnel stay away from work to attend various cultural and sports events. But here are the facts. At the Dimitrovgrad Assembly Plant in Ul'yanovskaya Oblast, for example, this was the reason for the loss of around 10,000 man-days within a year. We are dealing with a strange paradox: People, especially the young, complain about boredom, saying that they have nothing to do in their free time, but at the same time the pursuits intended for leisure invade the work day and steal time away from labor. What is more, young people's newspapers have sometimes criticized enterprise administrations for not giving young workers time off to attend competitions and other cultural events, as if they have forgotten that this is not supposed to be done during work hours. And until we solve the problem of free time, we would not be able to solve the problem of labor conservation.

Up to this point we have been analyzing factors affecting the overexpenditure of labor or, on the other hand, its conservation, with a view to the workers who are now employed in the national economy. But now we should think about increasing the labor army. Are there ways of raising the level of public employment?

I think that we are not making use of all these methods in earnest.

According to my observations, the revision of the present rules of job combination could provide us with a significant manpower reserve. The rules were adopted long ago when the manpower situation was different and it was not as crucial to make full use of each individual's labor potential.

Here are some of the most convincing examples.

The total working time in some branches of the national economy is noticeably reduced when personnel leave to work in agriculture and in vegetable storage facilities. In the near future the need for this kind of help is not likely to decrease. But this recruited manpower could be used more efficiently, and this would mean more economical labor expenditures.

Studies have shown that expenditures on agricultural production when manpower is recruited from cities are at least 3 times as high as the norm (counting the losses suffered by the enterprises from which this manpower has come). Perhaps it would be more economical to raise the rates of agricultural work during peak periods (including piece-work rates) and thereby attract volunteers from the cities?

We have studied the experience in agricultural construction, where much of the work is performed by so-called "slapdash" workers and we are convinced that, up close, these people do not look at all like the way they are sometimes described

by newspaper satirists. Many of them are extremely conscientious workers who give up their regular vacation for the sake of these wages. We have encountered brigades that consist totally of candidates of science from Moscow, Leningrad and Kiev. In addition to the wages, they are attracted by the change of work, active recreation and health benefits--the things that conventional vacations do not always give them. The dry law is enforced quite strictly. And although the wages seem astronomical, they are actually based, as a rule, on existing standards and norms. We made sure to verify this. It is simply that the work continues all day, as long as it is light, and the entire collective is motivated to complete the work as quickly and as well as possible.

Finally, I would like to say something about a newspaper campaign that was organized with the best intentions but, unfortunately, turned out to be detrimental. It was conducted in defense of self-funded scientific production associations, particularly the Fakel Association in Novosibirsk. The arguments "for" were quite solid and convincing. I must admit that I never heard any equally sound, principled objections. I think that it would be worthwhile to return to this idea and give it a legitimate right to life.

It is obvious that a consistent struggle for labor conservation will require more flexibility in the organization of labor and wages in general and will necessitate a search for better ways of adapting to local conditions and to demand and supply patterns in various spheres of labor. The cost of labor losses is also rising--unutilized work minutes, the inability to find each worker a necessary spot in the production process and the failure to create the necessary incentives for a person to invest his physical and spiritual efforts in work. These losses are irreplaceable.

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## EDUCATION

MIRZOYEV ON TAJIK UNIVERSITY ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS FOR 1981-1982 SCHOOL YEAR

Dushanbe KCOMMUNIST TADZHIKISTANA in Russian 28 Jul 81 p 3

[Interview with TaSSR Deputy Minister of Higher Education M. M. Mirzoyev by T. Zbrozhchek, date and place not specified: "VUZ's Await Reinforcements"]

[Text] Republic VUZ's are admitting reinforcements. Who is bringing his documents to the admissions commissions today? What specialties are especially popular among young people? Will the competition be strong? Our correspondent, T. Zbrozhchek, asked Tajik SSR Deputy Ministry of Higher Education M. M. Mirzoyev to respond to these and a number of other questions.

[Question] [not supplied]

[Answer] "Some 8,655 people are now being admitted to the day divisions of nine republican VUZ's," said Melik Mirzoyevich. "That is somewhat more than last year. The admissions commissions have already received 22,000 applications. I expect they will have received another 2,000 to 3,000 by 31 July. That means approximately the same number of young people as last year will be competing in the examinations.

As always, the applications are distributed unevenly. There is practically no competition, or too little, in some departments, and there are others in which 12 people are competing for each place.

The most popular specialties this year are plant protection, agronomy and agricultural mechanization at the agriculture institute and trade economics and Eastern languages at the TGU [probably Tajik State University], where the competition is 9-12 people per place. Also popular are the specialties of automotive fleet operation at the polytechnical institute, medicine at the medical institute, law at TGU and organizer-methods specialist at the art institute -- 5-7 people per place. But there are thus far few who want to teach physics and mathematics or Russian, and there is practically no competition in these departments. For some reason, the pedagogical VUZ's have not been as successful this year as in years past. One and a half people per place at the Dushanbe and Leninabad teacher institutes is hardly competition at all.

[Question] Melik Mirzoyevich, would you tell us, please, more about the experiment being run at the VUZ's during the entrance examinations.

[Answer] Several years ago, a number of republic and national VUZ's permitted those with a 4.5 average on their secondary school graduation certificates to take only the first two entrance examinations. If they scored a total of at least nine points on them, they were enrolled in the VUZ. Otherwise, they had to take all the other examinations, that is, to participate in the general competition.

This experiment became part of the admission rules and is in effect everywhere, but with one proviso: the admissions commission is given the right to cancel the experiment if the competition is especially strong. At TGU, for example, the experiment is not in effect now for admissions to the department of Eastern languages, nor is it in effect in the department of Tajik philology in the capital's teacher institute, which has also received many applications.

[Question] But does the experiment apply to those leaving secondary school who are in the program of noncompetitive admission and cooperative specialist training in VUZ's of other Union republics?

[Answer] Thirty-one cities in the country grant our graduating secondary school students places in their VUZ's on a noncompetitive admission basis. These are basically in specialties not taught in institutes in our republic: the technology and overall mechanization of open-pit mineral deposit development, the chemical technology of binders, mining machinery and complexes, specialties in textile, meat and dairy industry, forestry, and others. Young people wishing to enter these occupations take examinations in Dushanbe at TGU, the polytechnical institute, TMI [not further identified], TSKhI [probably Tajik Agricultural Institute], DGPI [probably Dushanbe State Pedagogical Institute] imeni Shevchenko, and will study in Moscow, Leningrad, Novosibirsk, Tashkent, L'vov and other cities.

An experiment has been instituted for this group of graduating secondary school students. One would think many would want to take part, but surprisingly, year in and year out the republic has failed to carry out its noncompetitive admissions plan. Young people evidently have a poor understanding of the occupations they would obtain or do not want to leave the republic. It is a pity that no one wants to obtain such good occupations as, for example, printing engineer or mining engineer. And in fact, our young people can choose from 140 specialties in the VUZ's of other republics!

[Question] Perhaps graduating secondary school students are poorly informed about noncompetitive admission?

[Answer] Possibly. But the basic oversight, it seems to me, is in vocational guidance. School graduates do not understand what many specialties are. True, to be fair, pedagogical collectives, parents, Soviet of People's Deputies ispolkoms and the VUZ's themselves have improved this work in recent years.

[Question] What is the republic Ministry of Higher and Secondary Special Education and VUZ rectors and public organizations doing to hold successful admissions examinations?

[Answer] The composition of the admissions and subject-examination commissions of the VUZ's was carefully selected by the rectors back in January-February. The republic Ministry of Higher and Secondary Special Education has examined very attentively

how the commissions were drawn up and who was included in them. Seminar conferences were held for the responsible commission secretaries. The ministry board twice presented VUZ rector information on admissions at its sessions. I can authoritatively state that documents will be accepted from, conversations held with and examinations given to graduating secondary school students by highly qualified, fair, politically mature teachers who will be able to create a business-like, benevolent atmosphere at the examinations, who will be principled and intolerant of violations of the admissions rules. Monitoring posts manned by representatives of public organizations have been created in each VUZ.

[Question] What do you think distinguishes the current admissions examinations from those of last year?

[Answer] The 1981 graduates seem to be pleasing examiners because of their deeper knowledge. School teachers have doubtless drawn a lesson from the results of the 1980 admissions examinations noted by the Ministry. Analysis of the general educational preparation of graduating secondary school students, their unsatisfactory knowledge of particular sections of the school disciplines, the conformity of graduates' knowledge to the evaluations on their certificates -- all this was, so to speak, laid out on the table for us. So the 1981 graduates had to be better prepared. The VUZ's are anticipating good reinforcements.

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## EDUCATION

### MORE VOCATIONAL-TECHNICAL TRAINING METHODS RESEARCH URGED IN UZBEKISTAN

Tashkent PRAVDA VOSTOKA in Russian 20 Jun 81 p 3

[Article by Candidate of Pedagogical Sciences V. Alekseyev, director, Tashkent branch of the All-Union Scientific Research Institute of Vocational-Technical Education: "The Scientist and the PTU (Vocational-Technical School)"]

[Text] The 26th CPSU Congress set the vocational-technical school large tasks, calling upon it to provide the national economy with highly skilled worker personnel. These tasks are linked foremost to expanding the network of vocational-technical schools and improving the study-education process.

In terms of growth rate, our republic network of vocational-technical schools is one of the country's leaders. During the 10th Five-Year Plan, 214 new schools were created in Uzbekistan, which now has about 490.

One clear manifestation of party and government concern for improving the vocational-technical education system was the creation of a branch of the All-Union Scientific Research Institute of Vocational-Technical Education in Tashkent in 1979 on the initiative of the Uzbekistan Communist Party Central Committee. One of the leading directions of research being done here is connected with shaping the vocational interests of school pupils. Solving this problem is of great importance in reducing drop-outs and will also serve to effectively shape in our graduates a moral, psychological and professional readiness to work in their chosen occupations.

The results of scientific research done in the republic on problems of pedagogical science over the past five-year period were discussed at the fifth session of the council for coordinating scientific-pedagogical research which was held recently in Tashkent. It noted, in particular, that both university, VUZ and scientific research institute scientists and teachers from general educational schools and vocational-technical instructors are participating actively in developing comprehensive topics. The geography of the scientific-pedagogical research has also broadened; it is being done at a majority of the republic pedagogical VUZ's today. Still, with regard to the nature of scientific research being done by corresponding departments and scientific subdivisions, it is easily noted that they are basically researching pedagogical training and education problems specific to the general educational school.

Suffice it to say that, besides the Uzbek Scientific Research Institute of Pedagogical Sciences, at which a department of vocational-technical education was created in 1973, not one pedagogical institute or university department with experienced teacher-

scientists has conducted research connected with improving the training and education of vocational-technical school students. And this at a time when the tasks of training and educating young workers have become significantly more complex in connection with the change-over of vocational-technical schools to training workers with secondary educations. Take just the problem of vocational guidance. It has many aspects and urgently needs comprehensive psychological-pedagogical research in order to arm school and vocational-technical school collectives with scientifically substantiated methods of vocational guidance and vocational consultation. The effectiveness of research on this problem must be defined in terms of its end result: the extent to which boys and girls successfully master their chosen occupations and how durable their bonds are with the labor collectives of which they become members after graduating from school. In this regard, it is important to consider that much of what has already been accumulated by researchers on questions of the communist up-bringing of young people in the general educational school could be "transformed" to apply to the study-educational process in the vocational-technical school. (For example, research results on shaping a communist world view in students during the course of instructing them in the natural[-sciences] subject cycle, of using Leniniana materials in study-educational work in schools in which Uzbek is the language of instruction, on student atheistic training when studying physics, and so on.) Of course, the reference is not to a mechanical transfer of particular methods recommendations, but to the creative application of the laws and theses of pedagogical science which have been revealed.

Research devoted to seeking out ways of heightening the educational role of the modern lesson in vocational-technical schools deserves special attention.

Successful resolution of the problems connected with improving vocational-technical education will require the enlistment of scientists with special engineering training. At the same time, the resolute turn of the vocational-technical school towards fundamental improvement in vocational training and the communist up-bringing of future workers makes it necessary to intensify attention towards it on the part of scientists in various university and pedagogical institute departments, as well as in the republic scientific research institutes. Such a concentrating of the joint efforts of scientists will enable us to improve the quality and effectiveness of training as a whole for the young workforce.

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## DEMOGRAPHY

### NUMERICAL STRENGTHS OF NATIONALITIES, CHANGES NOTED

Moscow APN DAILY REVIEW in English Vol 28 No 10, 11 May 81 pp 1-7

[Article by Professor S. Bruk, doctor of geography, assistant director, Institute of Ethnography, USSR Academy of Sciences: "The Soviet People"]

[Text] The Soviet Union is one of the most multinational states of the world. It is inhabited by over 100 big and small peoples of different origin, speaking different languages and having different cultures but closely connected by a common historical destiny.

What are the distinguishing features of development of our peoples today? There are today two interconnected progressive tendencies. On the one hand, rapid and all-round progress of every national and national culture takes place, on the other, all socialist nations are drawing increasingly closer together. They are drawing together ever faster.

The realization by the Party of the Leninist national policy—a policy of equality and friendship among the peoples—is one of the most important gains of socialism. The successes achieved during the years of Soviet power by our peoples—especially the peoples of the former outskirts of the Russian empire—in the economic and cultural fields are widely known. Their "demographic portrait" is less known.

Analysis of national processes is of paramount scientific and practical importance for social and cultural construction in the USSR. This is why every Soviet census has had as one of its main tasks to find out national and language composition of the population.

In the 1979 census, as in the previous ones, nationality was written down as was given by each person. The nationality of children was defined by their parents. When father and mother were of different nationalities and the parents had difficulties in naming the nationality of the child, they were advised being guided primarily (but not necessarily) by the mother's nationality. The questionnaire included the native tongue, the one which the given person knows best of all, or which is habitually spoken in the family, as well as a second language of the peoples of the Soviet Union which he speaks fluently.

A comparison of the data obtained from the post-war census in the USSR (1959, 1970 and 1979) shows that the national and lingual composition of our country's population



undergoes considerable changes. The changes, however, concern only the number of different peoples, as well as correlations between the nationalities and their respective mother tongues. The characteristic intensive consolidation processes of the first two decades of Soviet power, when small ethnic groups merged to form larger peoples (thus in the early 1920s about 20 such groups joined into two nationalities, the Altaians and the Khakass), now no longer play a role of any importance.

Prior to World War II, fluctuations in the birth-rate and the pace of natural increase of population in the Union republics were comparatively small.

In 1940, birth-rate in the Armenian and Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republics was considerably higher than the average for the USSR. By 1950, the high birth-rate group was joined by the Moldavian SSR while population growth in Armenia noticeably declined. Only after 1950, a sharp differentiation began between birth-rates in the Central Asian and Transcaucasian republics (with the exception of Georgia, where birth-rate was never too high) and in the rest of the republics. At present birth-rate in the Central Asian republics is more than twice higher than in the RSFSR, the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic, the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic and the Baltic republics and 50 percent higher than in all the other republics.

During the twenty years from 1959 to 1979, with the total growth of the country's population being 25.7 percent, the number of Tajiks, Uzbeks, Turkmen as well as Dzungars, Uigurs and Turks more than doubled; the number of Kirghiz, Azerbaijanians, Kazakhs, Chechen, Ingush, Kara-Kalpaks, the peoples of Dagestan, Kurds and Tats increased by 75 to 100 percent; a 50 to 70 percent growth was shown by the Kabardinians, Tuvians, Karachayevs, Circassians, and Gypsies; a 25 to 50 percent growth by the Armenians, Moldavians, Georgians, Yakuts, Abkhazians, Buryats, Kalmyks, Bashkirs, Adygheis, Altaians, Ossetians, Tatars, Persians, Abazins, and Gagauz; a 10 to 25 percent growth by the Lithuanians, Russians, Byelorussians, Ukrainians, Khakass, Mari, the peoples of the North, Chuvashs, Udmurts, Komi and Komi-Permyaks, Koreans, Rumanians, Germans, Assyrians, Bulgarians, Greeks, and Hungarians; a less than 10 percent increase was registered by the Estonians, Letts, and Shorians. A decline in numbers was registered by the Mordovians, Karelians, Jews, Poles, and Finns.

There is hardly any other ethnic group in the world with such a high rate of growth as the peoples of the Central Asian republics of the USSR (3.0-3.5 percent per annum). As for the other nationalities, Russian included, they, too, have a higher average annual growth rate than most of the peoples living in the developed countries.

"THE FRATERNAL FRIENDSHIP AMONG ALL THE PEOPLES OF OUR MULTINATIONAL COUNTRY IS GROWING STEADILY STRONGER.... The intensive economic and social development of each of our republics speeds up the process of their coming closer together in every field. National cultures are thriving and enriching one another, and we are witnessing the moulding of the culture of the whole Soviet people—a new social and international community. In our country this process is taking place as it should take place under socialism—on the basis of equality, fraternal cooperation, and free will."

From Report of the CPSU Central Committee to the 26th Congress of the Communist Party of

the Soviet Union and the Current Tasks of the Party in Home and Foreign Policy. Delivered by L. I. Brezhnev, General Secretary of the CPSU Central Committee.

Yet the growth rate of practically all the nationalities in the USSR has in the past twenty years exhibited a downward trend.

Thus in 1970-1979 (as compared with 1959-1970), the average annual rate of growth of the Central Asian peoples declined by 13.8 percent, of the Kazakhs by 20.7 percent, of the Russians, Georgians, Lithuanians, and Moldavians by 40 percent, of the Ukrainians by almost 50 percent, the Byelorussians by 60 percent (the decline of the average annual growth rate for the country as a whole being 31.3 percent).

Hence the proportion of individual nationalities in the country's population has changed.

The proportion of the nationalities of the Slav group declined from 77.1 percent in 1959 to 74.6 percent in 1970 and to 72.8 percent in 1979. The proportion of the peoples of the Turkic group grew respectively from 11.1 percent to 13.4 percent and to 15.2 percent.

The reasons for the changes in the numbers of the peoples are quite diverse. The most important of them are the different natural increase depending mainly on different levels of birth-rate and the mixing of various ethnic groups. Close economic and cultural relations accelerate the processes of mixing. They are especially fast in the cities, where marriages between persons of different nationalities are more frequent and the change from one language to another happens sooner.

This has led to considerable shifts in the numerical growth of some of the peoples inhabiting the areas along the Volga and the European North (above all, the Udmurts, Karelians, Finns, Komi and Komi-Permiaks) as well as the Jews and the Poles. They mix especially actively, mostly with the neighbouring ethnic groups.

The interaction of three factors—different birth-rate levels, migration of the population and the processes of dissolution of heterogeneous ethnic elements in a different national environment (the causes are mentioned in order of importance)—has led to a growth of proportion of the indigenous nationalities in some Union republics (the Central Asian and Transcaucasian republics, Kazakhstan, and Lithuania) and to a decline in others.

The most numerous group of different nationality is: for the RSFSR, the Uzbek and the Kazakh republics, Tatars; the Ukrainian republic, Jews; the Byelorussian and the Lithuanian republics, Poles; the Georgian and the Azerbaijan republics, Armenians; the Moldavian republic, Gagauz; the Latvian republic, Byelorussians; the Kirghiz, the Tajik, and the Turkmen republics, Uzbeks; the Armenian republic, Azerbaijanians; the Estonian republic, Byelorussians.

Since Russians constitute an important component in the populations of the Union republics, the shifts in their numbers are especially interesting to analyze. In all republics (with the exception of Central Asia, Kazakhstan and Transcaucasia) where

the indigenous population does not grow too fast, the proportion of Russians in the republic's national composition has increased, and only in the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic the proportion of Russians has somewhat declined. Assuming the rate of growth of the Russian nation to be equal in all republics and disregarding other factors, it will be found that during the two decades 1.8 million Russians have migrated to Central Asia and Kazakhstan, almost two million of them have migrated to the Ukraine, over 300,000 to Byelorussia, and 300,000 to the Baltic republics. In actual fact the figures are apparently somewhat smaller. Less Russians, for example, have migrated to the Ukraine than the calculation shows: for back in 1959 over two million Ukrainians within the territory of the Ukrainian republic named Russian as their mother tongue; part of them (or their children) might since then have also changed their nationality. There has recently been almost no influx of Russian population to the Transcaucasian republics.

The numerical strength of every nationality is in most cases near to the number of persons who have given as their mother tongue the tongue of the given nationality.

As many as 93.1 percent of the country's total population indicated in the 1979 census questionnaire as their mother tongue the language of their nationality. As a rule, over 95 percent of the population in the Union republics use their mother tongue. For the Armenians, more than a third of them live outside their republic, the percentage is lower, 90.7, and for the Byelorussians and the Ukrainians, whose languages are akin to Russian, it is lower still, 74.2 percent and 82.8 percent respectively. The peoples of the autonomous republics and autonomous regions use primarily their mother tongues. It is only among the Bashkirs, Komi, Karelians, Mordovians and Udmurts that the national language is spoken by less than 80 percent of the population.

The case is different with the peoples who live scattered.

The language of their nationality is used by only 29.1 percent of the Poles, 30.7 percent of the Persians, 38.0 percent of the Greeks, and 40.9 percent of the Finns.

Nationality coincides with the mother tongue considerably less often among those groups of nationalities who live outside their republics.

Thus, 89.1 percent of the Ukrainians in the Ukrainian republic regard Ukrainian as their mother tongue, while outside the Ukraine the Ukrainian language is spoken by 60.2 percent of the Ukrainians. The respective figures for the Byelorussians are 83.5 percent and 36.8 percent; the Uzbeks, 98.8 percent and 81.7 percent; the Kuzakhs, 98.6 percent and 92.8 percent; the Armenians, 99.4 percent and 74.0 percent; the Tatars 97.7 percent and 81.8 percent, etc.

Persons who gave as their mother tongue the language of another nationality numbered 18.2 million, of whom 16.3 million named Russian as their mother tongue.

During the 1979 census, a total of 153.5 million people named Russian as their mother tongue (the 1970 census figure was 141.8 million). Another 61.2 million people said that they could speak Russian fluently as a second language (the 1970 figure was 41.9 million). Altogether, 214.7 million people, or 81.9 percent of the population of the USSR, know the Russian language well.



Still before the victory of the Great October Revolution, V. I. Lenin pointed out that the needs of economic relations will always make the nationalities living within one state (while they want to live together) to study the language of the majority.

The Russian language has become the language of the nationalities' intercourse, it plays an important role in the process of the peoples of the USSR coming closer together. All in all, 62.1 percent of the non-Russian population of the Soviet Union speak Russian fluently.

Along with Russian, other languages of the peoples of the USSR are quite widespread as second well-known languages. The most widespread of them are the Ukrainian, Byelorussian, Uzbek, Tatar, Moldavian, Azerbaijanian, Tajik, and Georgian languages. These languages were named as the ones spoken fluently by 12.3 million people (4.7 percent of the country's population).

That bilingualism is widespread in the country can be seen from the following data: among 77 peoples (out of 101) the number of persons speaking fluently a second language of the peoples of the USSR surpasses 50 percent.

As the result of the lingual-cultural integration, there forms the Soviet culture. This culture represents an important feature of the Soviet people, a new historical community of people that has arisen on the basis of political unity of the Soviet nations and their economic integration and ideological harmony.

(NAUKA I ZHIZN' No 4, 1981. Abridged.)

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